



# Discrete Mathematics

## Lecture 03

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## Negating Quantified Expressions:

$P(x)$  is the statement " $x$  has taken a course in calculus" and the domain consists of the students in your class.

$\forall xP(x)$  :



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## Valid Arguments in Propositional Logic

Consider the following argument involving propositions (which, by definition, is a sequence of propositions):

"If you have a current password, then you can log onto the network."

"You have a current password."

Therefore,

"You can log onto the network."



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"You have a current password."

**Premises**

Therefore,

"You can log onto the network."

**Conclusion**



## Valid Arguments in Propositional Logic

Consider the following argument involving propositions (which, by definition, is a sequence of propositions):

$$p \rightarrow q$$

$$p$$

**Premises**

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$$\therefore q$$

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**Conclusion**

This argument is valid if  $((p \rightarrow q) \wedge p) \rightarrow q$  is a tautology.



## Valid Arguments in Propositional Logic

An **argument** in propositional logic is a sequence of propositions. All the proposition in the argument are called **premises** and the final proposition is called the **conclusion**.

$$p \rightarrow q$$

$$p$$

**Premises**

---

$$\therefore q$$

**Conclusion**

This argument is valid if  $((p \rightarrow q) \wedge p) \rightarrow q$  is a tautology.



## Valid Arguments in Propositional Logic

We can always use a truth table to show that an argument form is valid.



$p \rightarrow q$

$p$

---

$\therefore q$

## Valid Arguments in Propositional Logic

We can always use a truth table to show that an argument form is valid.

Premise 1

$p$	$q$	$p \rightarrow q$				
T	T	T				
T	F	F				
F	T	T				
F	F	T				

$p \rightarrow q$

$p$

---

$\therefore q$

## Valid Arguments in Propositional Logic

We can always use a truth table to show that an argument form is valid.

Premise 1    Premise 2

$p$	$q$	$p \rightarrow q$	$p$			
T	T	T	T			
T	F	F	T			
F	T	T	F			
F	F	T	F			

$p \rightarrow q$

$p$

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$\therefore q$

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$p$	$q$	$p \rightarrow q$	$p$	$(p \rightarrow q) \wedge p$		
T	T	T	T	T		
T	F	F	T	F		
F	T	T	F	F		
F	F	T	F	F		

$p \rightarrow q$

$p$

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$\therefore q$

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We can always use a truth table to show that an argument form is valid.

	Premise 1		Premise 2	Conclusion		
	$p$	$q$	$p \rightarrow q$	$p$	$(p \rightarrow q) \wedge p$	$q$
	T	T	T	T	T	T
	T	F	F	T	F	F
$p \rightarrow q$	F	T	T	F	F	T
$p$	F	F	T	F	F	F

$\therefore q$

## Valid Arguments in Propositional Logic

We can always use a truth table to show that an argument form is valid.

	Premise 1		Premise 2		Conclusion		
	$p$	$q$	$p \rightarrow q$	$p$	$(p \rightarrow q) \wedge p$	$q$	$((p \rightarrow q) \wedge p) \rightarrow q$
	T	T	T	T	T	T	T
	T	F	F	T	F	F	T
$p \rightarrow q$	F	T	T	F	F	T	T
$p$	F	F	T	F	F	F	T

$((p \rightarrow q) \wedge p) \rightarrow q$  is a tautology

$\therefore q$





# Rules of Inference (3/9)

TABLE 1 Rules of Inference.		Part 1
<i>Rule of Inference</i>	<i>Tautology</i>	<i>Name</i>
$\begin{array}{l} p \\ p \rightarrow q \\ \hline \therefore q \end{array}$	$(p \wedge (p \rightarrow q)) \rightarrow q$	Modus ponens
$\begin{array}{l} \neg q \\ p \rightarrow q \\ \hline \therefore \neg p \end{array}$	$(\neg q \wedge (p \rightarrow q)) \rightarrow \neg p$	Modus tollens
$\begin{array}{l} p \rightarrow q \\ q \rightarrow r \\ \hline \therefore p \rightarrow r \end{array}$	$((p \rightarrow q) \wedge (q \rightarrow r)) \rightarrow (p \rightarrow r)$	Hypothetical syllogism
$\begin{array}{l} p \vee q \\ \neg p \\ \hline \therefore q \end{array}$	$((p \vee q) \wedge \neg p) \rightarrow q$	Disjunctive syllogism



TABLE 1 Rules of Inference.		Part 2
<i>Rule of Inference</i>	<i>Tautology</i>	<i>Name</i>
$\frac{p}{\therefore p \vee q}$	$p \rightarrow (p \vee q)$	Addition
$\frac{p \wedge q}{\therefore p}$	$(p \wedge q) \rightarrow p$	Simplification
$\frac{p}{\therefore p \wedge q}$ $\frac{q}{\therefore p \wedge q}$	$((p) \wedge (q)) \rightarrow (p \wedge q)$	Conjunction
$\frac{p \vee q}{\therefore q \vee r}$ $\frac{\neg p \vee r}{\therefore q \vee r}$	$((p \vee q) \wedge (\neg p \vee r)) \rightarrow (q \vee r)$	Resolution

## Example 1

Using the truth table to show that the hypotheses

$$p \vee q$$

$$\neg p \vee r$$

lead to the conclusion

$$q \vee r$$

$  \begin{array}{l}  p \vee q \\  \neg p \vee r \\  \hline  \therefore q \vee r  \end{array}  $	$((p \vee q) \wedge (\neg p \vee r)) \rightarrow (q \vee r)$	Resolution
---	--	------------

## Example 1

Using the truth table to show that the hypotheses

$$p \vee q$$

$$\neg p \vee r$$

$$q \vee r$$

				Premise 1		Premise 2		Conclusion
	$p$	$q$	$r$	$p \vee q$	$\neg p$	$\neg p \vee r$	$(p \vee q) \wedge (\neg p \vee r)$	$q \vee r$
	T	T	T	T	F	T	T	T
-----	T	T	F	T	F	F	F	T
	T	F	T	T	F	T	T	T
	T	F	F	T	F	F	F	F
	F	T	T	T	T	T	T	T
	F	T	F	T	T	T	T	T
	F	F	T	F	T	T	F	T
	F	F	F	F	T	T	F	F



## Example2

Using the rules of inference to show that the hypotheses

$$\neg p \wedge q$$

$$r \rightarrow p$$

$$\neg r \rightarrow s$$

$$s \rightarrow t$$

lead to the conclusion

$$t$$

## Example2

$$\neg p \wedge q$$

$$\therefore \neg p$$

$\frac{p \wedge q}{\therefore p}$	$(p \wedge q) \rightarrow p$	Simplification
-----------------------------------	------------------------------	----------------

~~$$\neg p \wedge q$$~~

$$r \rightarrow p$$

$$\neg r \rightarrow s$$

$$s \rightarrow t$$

## Example2

$$\neg p \wedge q$$

$\frac{p \wedge q}{\therefore p}$	$(p \wedge q) \rightarrow p$	Simplification
-----------------------------------	------------------------------	----------------

$$\therefore \neg p$$

$$\neg p$$

$\frac{\neg q \quad p \rightarrow q}{\therefore \neg p}$	$(\neg q \wedge (p \rightarrow q)) \rightarrow \neg p$	Modus tollens
--	--	---------------

$$r \rightarrow p$$

$$\therefore \neg r$$

~~$$\neg p \wedge q$$~~

~~$$r \rightarrow p$$~~

$$\neg r \rightarrow s$$

$$s \rightarrow t$$

## Example2

 $\neg r$ 
 $\neg r \rightarrow S$ 
 $\therefore S$ 

$  \begin{array}{l}  p \\  p \rightarrow q \\  \hline  \therefore q  \end{array}  $	$(p \wedge (p \rightarrow q)) \rightarrow q$	Modus ponens
---	--	--------------

<del> <math display="block">\neg p \wedge q</math> </del>
<del> <math display="block">r \rightarrow p</math> </del>
<del> <math display="block">\neg r \rightarrow s</math> </del>
$s \rightarrow t$



## Example2

$$\neg r$$

$$\neg r \rightarrow S$$

$$\therefore S$$

$$S$$

$$S \rightarrow t$$

$$\therefore t$$

conclusion

$  \begin{array}{l}  p \\  p \rightarrow q \\  \hline  \therefore q  \end{array}  $	$(p \wedge (p \rightarrow q)) \rightarrow q$	Modus ponens
---	--	--------------

~~$$\neg p \wedge q$$~~

~~$$r \rightarrow p$$~~

~~$$\neg r \rightarrow S$$~~

~~$$S \rightarrow t$$~~



# Chapter 2: Basic Structures

- Sets.
- Functions.
- Sequences, and Summations.
- Matrices.



A **set** is an unordered collection of objects.

The objects in a set are called the *elements*, or *members*, of the set. A set is said to contain its elements.



$$S = \{a, b, c, d\}$$

We write  $a \in S$  to denote that  $a$  is an element of the set  $S$ . The notation  $e \notin S$  denotes that  $e$  is not an element of the set  $S$ .

The set  $O$  of odd positive integers less than 10 can be expressed by  $O = \{1, 3, 5, 7, 9\}$ .

The set of positive integers less than 100 can be denoted by  $\{1, 2, 3, \dots, 99\}$ .



ellipses (...)

Another way to describe a set is to use **set builder** notation.

The set  $O$  of odd positive integers less than 10 can be expressed by  $O = \{1, 3, 5, 7, 9\}$ .

$$O = \{x \mid x \text{ is an odd positive integer less than } 10\},$$

$$O = \{x \in \mathbf{Z}^+ \mid x \text{ is odd and } x < 10\}.$$



$\mathbf{N} = \{0, 1, 2, 3, \dots\}$ , the set of all **natural numbers**

$\mathbf{Z} = \{\dots, -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, \dots\}$ , the set of all **integers**

$\mathbf{Z}^+ = \{1, 2, 3, \dots\}$ , the set of all **positive integers**

$\mathbf{Q} = \{p/q \mid p \in \mathbf{Z}, q \in \mathbf{Z}, \text{ and } q \neq 0\}$ ,

the set of all **rational numbers**

$\mathbf{R}$ , the set of all **real numbers**

$\mathbf{R}^+$ , the set of all **positive real numbers**

$\mathbf{C}$ , the set of all **complex numbers**.



## Interval Notation

Closed interval  $[a, b]$

Open interval  $(a, b)$

$$[a, b] = \{x \mid a \leq x \leq b\}$$

$$[a, b) = \{x \mid a \leq x < b\}$$

$$(a, b] = \{x \mid a < x \leq b\}$$

$$(a, b) = \{x \mid a < x < b\}$$



If  $A$  and  $B$  are sets, then  $A$  and  $B$  are equal if and only if  $\forall x(x \in A \leftrightarrow x \in B)$ . We write  $A = B$ , if  $A$  and  $B$  are equal sets.

- The sets  $\{1, 3, 5\}$  and  $\{3, 5, 1\}$  are equal, because they have the same elements.
- $\{1, 3, 3, 5, 5, 5\}$  is the same as the set  $\{1, 3, 5\}$  because they have the same elements.



## Empty Set

There is a special set that has no elements. This set is called the empty set, or null set, and is denoted by  $\emptyset$ .

The empty set can also be denoted by  $\{ \}$



## Cardinality

The cardinality is the number of distinct elements in  $S$ .  
The cardinality of  $S$  is denoted by  $|S|$ .



## Example1

$$S = \{a, b, c, d\}$$

$$|S| = 4$$

$$A = \{1, 2, 3, 7, 9\}$$

$$\emptyset = \{ \}$$



## Example 1

$$S = \{a, b, c, d\}$$

$$|S| = 4$$

$$A = \{1, 2, 3, 7, 9\}$$

$$|A| = 5$$

$$\emptyset = \{ \}$$

$$|\emptyset| = 0$$



## Example2

$$S = \{a, b, c, d, \{2\}\}$$

$$|S| =$$

$$A = \{1, 2, 3, \{2,3\}, 9\}$$

$$|A| =$$

$$\{\emptyset\} = \{\{\ \}\}$$

$$|\{\emptyset\}| =$$



## Example2

$$S = \{a, b, c, d, \{2\}\}$$

$$|S| = 5$$

$$A = \{1, 2, 3, \{2,3\}, 9\}$$

$$|A| = 5$$

$$\{\emptyset\} = \{\{\ \}\}$$

$$|\{\emptyset\}| = 1$$



## Infinite

A set is said to be **infinite** if it is not finite.

The set of positive integers is infinite.

$$\mathbb{Z}^+ = \{1, 2, 3, \dots\}$$





## Subset

The set  $A$  is said to be a subset of  $B$  if and only if every element of  $A$  is also an element of  $B$  .

We use the notation  $A \subseteq B$  to indicate that  $A$  is a subset of the set  $B$  .

$$A \subseteq B \leftrightarrow \forall x(x \in A \rightarrow x \in B)$$



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$$(A \subseteq B) \equiv (B \supseteq A)$$

$$A \subseteq B \leftrightarrow \forall x(x \in A \rightarrow x \in B)$$



## Subset

For every set  $S$ ,

$$(i) \emptyset \subseteq S \quad \text{and} \quad (ii) S \subseteq S.$$

To show that two sets  $A$  and  $B$  are equal, show that  $A \subseteq B$  and  $B \subseteq A$ .

## Proper Subset

The set  $A$  is a subset of the set  $B$  but that  $A \neq B$ , we write  $A \subset B$  and say that  $A$  is a **proper subset** of  $B$ .

$$A \subset B \leftrightarrow (\forall x(x \in A \rightarrow x \in B) \wedge \exists x(x \in B \wedge x \notin A))$$



## Example

For each of the following sets,  
determine whether 3 is an element of that set.

$$\{1,2,3,4\}$$

$$\{\{1\}, \{2\}, \{3\}, \{4\}\}$$

$$\{1,2, \{1,3\}\}$$



## Example

For each of the following sets,  
determine whether 3 is an element of that set.

$$3 \in \{1,2,3,4\}$$

$$3 \notin \{\{1\}, \{2\}, \{3\}, \{4\}\}$$

$$3 \notin \{1,2, \{1,3\}\}$$



## Venn Diagram

$$A = \{1,2,3,4,7\}$$

$$B = \{0,3,5,7,9\}$$

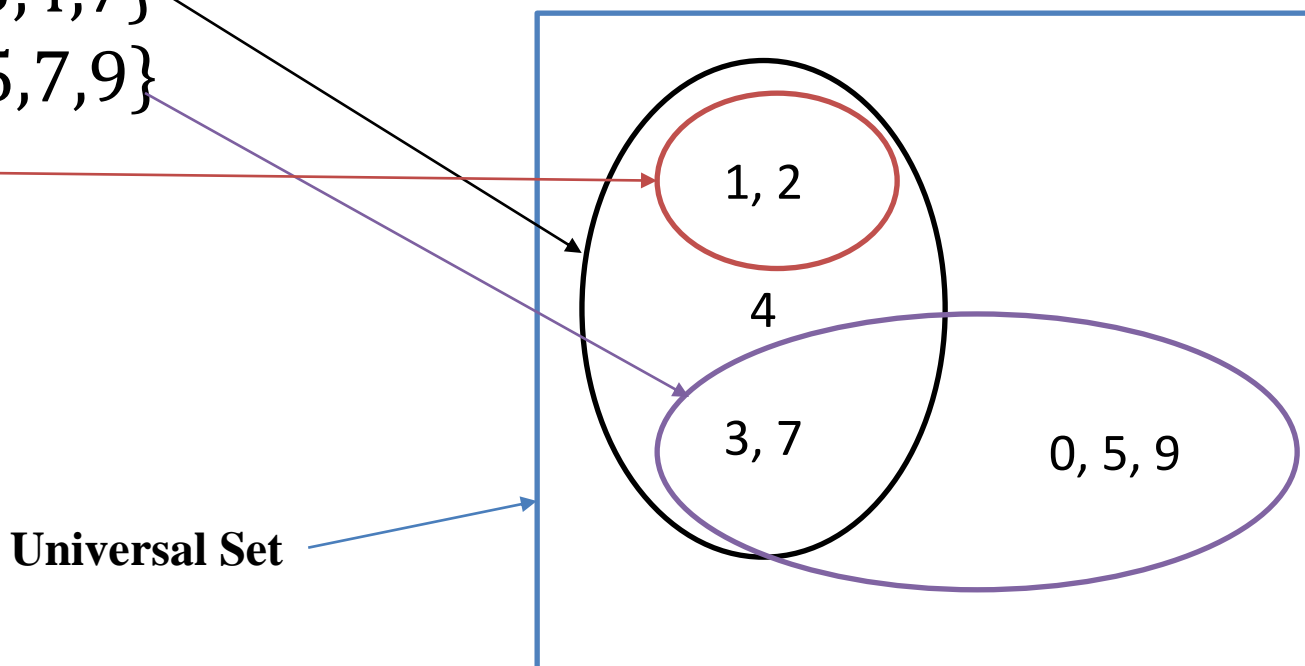
$$C = \{1,2\}$$

## Venn Diagram

$$A = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 7\}$$

$$B = \{0, 3, 5, 7, 9\}$$

$$C = \{1, 2\}$$







## Power Set

**The set of all subsets.**

If the set is  $S$ . The power set of  $S$  is denoted by  $P(S)$ .

The number of elements in the power set is  $2^{|S|}$

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The number of elements in the power set is  $2^{|S|}$

$$S = \{1,2,3\}$$

$$|P(S)| = 2^3 = 8 \text{ elements}$$

$$P(S) = 2^S$$

$$= \{\emptyset, \{1\}, \{2\}, \{3\}, \{1,2\}, \{1,3\}, \{2,3\}, \{1,2,3\}\}$$



## Example1

What is the power set of the empty set?



## Example 1

What is the power set of the empty set?

$$\mathcal{P}(\emptyset) = \{\emptyset\}.$$



## Example2

What is the power set of the set  $\{\emptyset\}$ ?



## Example2

What is the power set of the set  $\{\emptyset\}$ ?

$$\mathcal{P}(\{\emptyset\}) = \{\emptyset, \{\emptyset\}\}.$$

## The ordered $n$ -tuple

The ordered  $n$ -tuple  $(a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n)$  is the ordered collection that has  $a_1$  as its first element,  $a_2$  as its second element,  $\dots$ , and  $a_n$  as its  $n$ th element.

In particular, ordered 2-tuples are called ordered pairs (e.g., the ordered pairs  $(a, b)$ )



## Cartesian Products

Let  $A$  and  $B$  be sets.

The **Cartesian product** of  $A$  and  $B$ , denoted by  $A \times B$ , is the set of all ordered pairs  $(a, b)$ , where  $a \in A$  and  $b \in B$ . Hence,  $A \times B = \{(a, b) \mid a \in A \wedge b \in B\}$ .





## Cartesian Products - Example

Let  $A = \{1,2\}$ , and  $B = \{a, b, c\}$

$A \times B = \{(1, a), (1, b), (1, c), (2, a), (2, b), (2, c)\}$ .

$$|A \times B| = |A| * |B| = 2 * 3 = 6$$

## Cartesian Products - Example

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$A \times B = \{(1, a), (1, b), (1, c), (2, a), (2, b), (2, c)\}$ .

$$|A \times B| = |A| * |B| = 2 * 3 = 6$$

Find  $B \times A$  ?

## The Cartesian product of more than two sets.

The Cartesian product of the sets  $A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n$ , denoted by  $A_1 \times A_2 \times \dots \times A_n$ , is the set of ordered  $n$ -tuples  $(a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n)$ , where  $a_i$  belongs to  $A_i$  for  $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$ . In other words,

$$A_1 \times A_2 \times \dots \times A_n = \{ (a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n) \mid a_i \in A_i \text{ for } i = 1, 2, \dots, n \}.$$



## Example:

$A \times B \times C$ , where  $A = \{0, 1\}$ ,  $B = \{1, 2\}$ , and  $C = \{0, 1, 2\}$

$$A \times B \times C = \{(0, 1, 0), (0, 1, 1), (0, 1, 2), (0, 2, 0), (0, 2, 1), (0, 2, 2), (1, 1, 0), (1, 1, 1), (1, 1, 2), (1, 2, 0), (1, 2, 1), (1, 2, 2)\}.$$

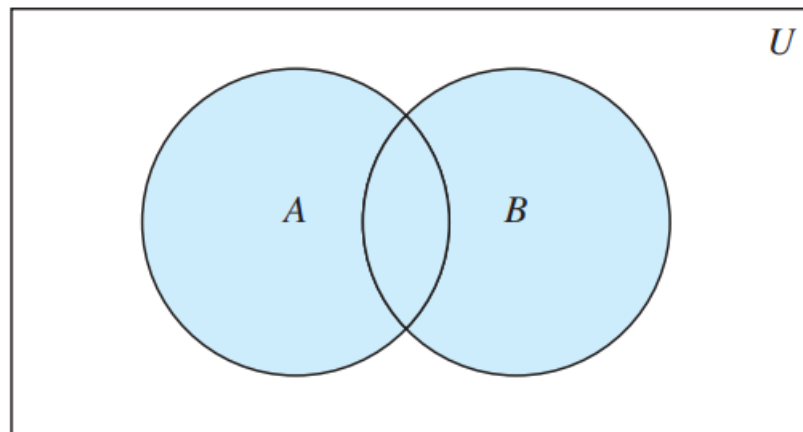
## Union

Let  $A$  and  $B$  be sets. The **union** of the sets  $A$  and  $B$ , denoted by  $A \cup B$ , is the set that contains those elements that are either in  $A$  or in  $B$ , or in both.

$$A \cup B = \{x \mid x \in A \vee x \in B\}$$

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$A \cup B$  is shaded.

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The union of the sets  $\{1, 3, 5\}$  and  $\{1, 2, 3\}$  is the set  $\{1, 2, 3, 5\}$



## Intersection

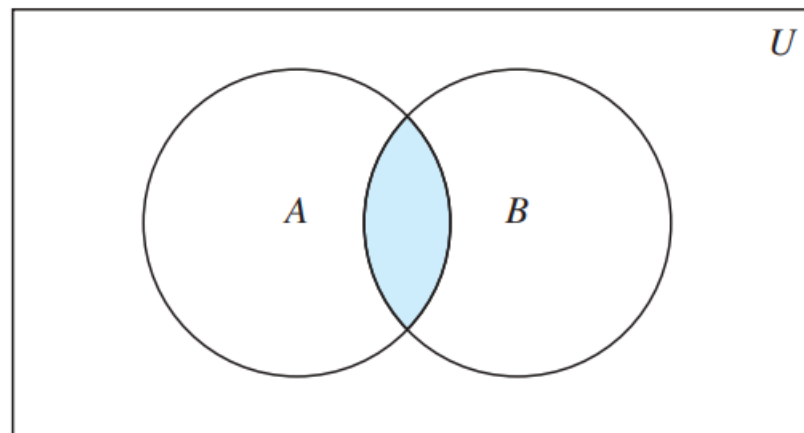
Let  $A$  and  $B$  be sets. The **intersection** of the sets  $A$  and  $B$ , denoted by  $A \cap B$ , is the set that contains those elements that are in both  $A$  and  $B$ .

$$A \cap B = \{x \mid x \in A \wedge x \in B\}$$



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The intersection of the sets  $\{1, 3, 5\}$  and  $\{1, 2, 3\}$  is the set  $\{1, 3\}$



## Disjoint

Two sets are called **disjoint** if their intersection is the empty set.

$$A \cap B = \emptyset$$

## Difference

Let  $A$  and  $B$  be sets. The difference of  $A$  and  $B$ , denoted by  $A - B$ , is the set containing those elements that are in  $A$  but not in  $B$ .

$$A - B = \{x \mid x \in A \wedge x \notin B\}$$

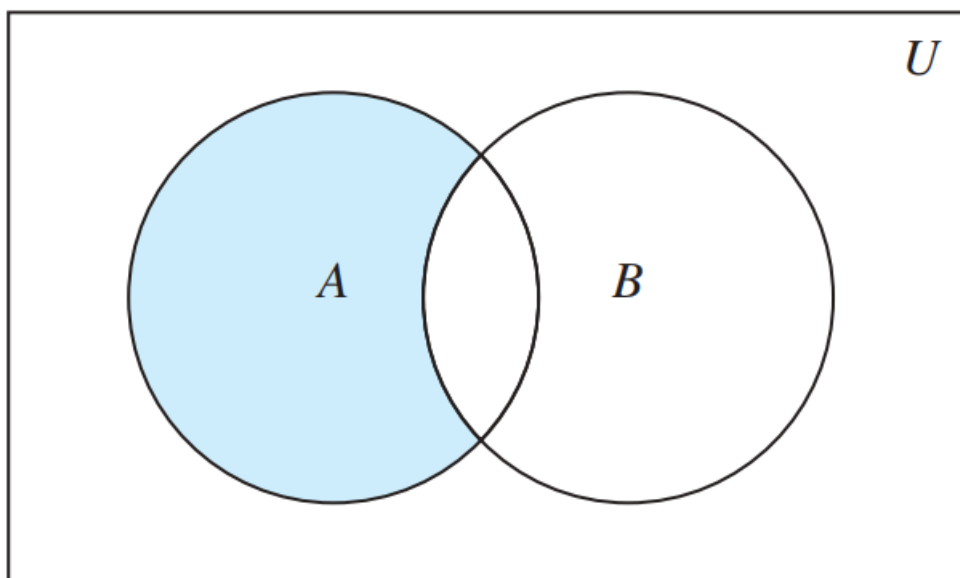
## Difference

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$$A = \{1,3,5\}, \quad B = \{1,2,3\}$$

$$A - B = \{5\}$$

## Difference



$A - B$  is shaded.

## Complement

Let  $U$  be the universal set.

The complement of the set  $A$ , denoted by  $\bar{A}$

An element  $x$  belongs to  $U$  if and only if  $x \notin A$ .

$$\bar{A} = \{x \in U \mid x \notin A\}$$

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The complement of the set  $A$ , denoted by  $\bar{A}$

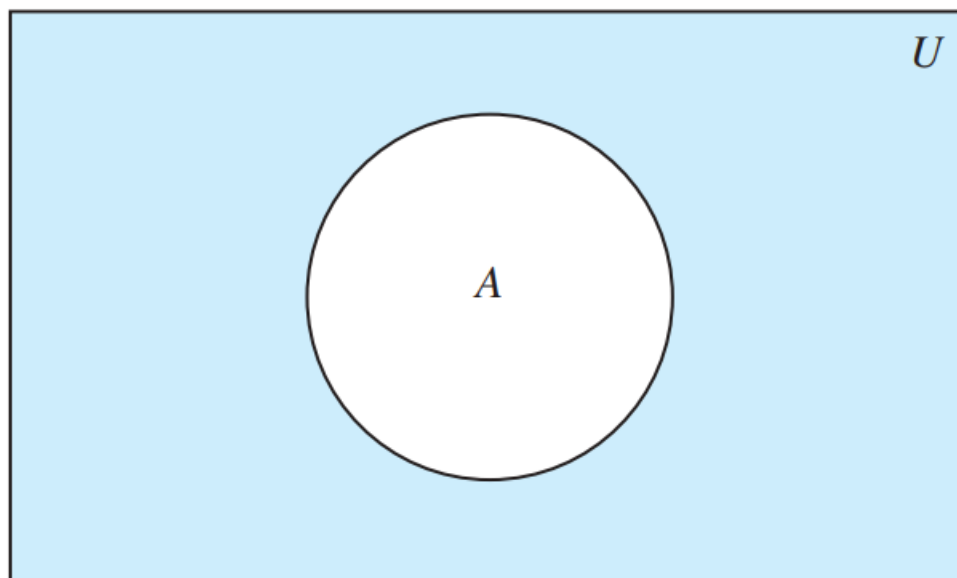
An element  $x$  belongs to  $U$  if and only if  $x \notin A$ .

$$U = \{1,2,3,4,5\}, \quad A = \{1,3\}$$

$$\bar{A} = \{2,4,5\}$$



## Complement



$\bar{A}$  is shaded.



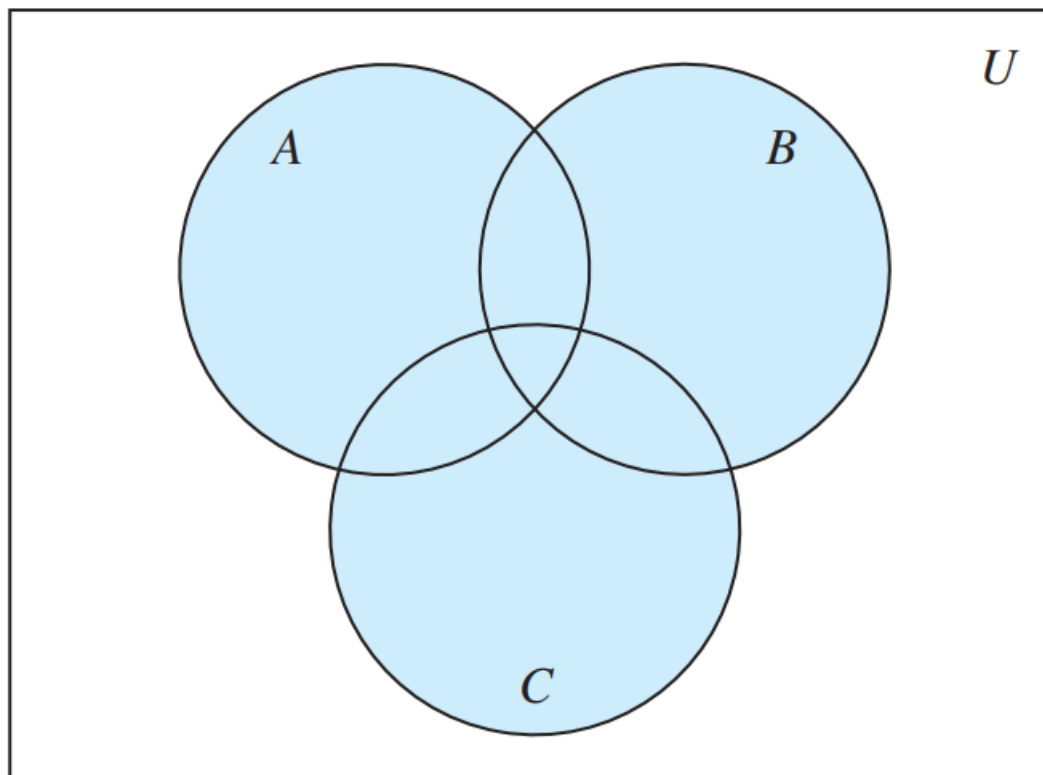
## Generalized Unions

We use the notation

$$A_1 \cup A_2 \cup \cdots \cup A_n = \bigcup_{i=1}^n A_i$$

to denote the union of the sets  $A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n$ .

## Generalized Unions



$A \cup B \cup C$  is shaded.

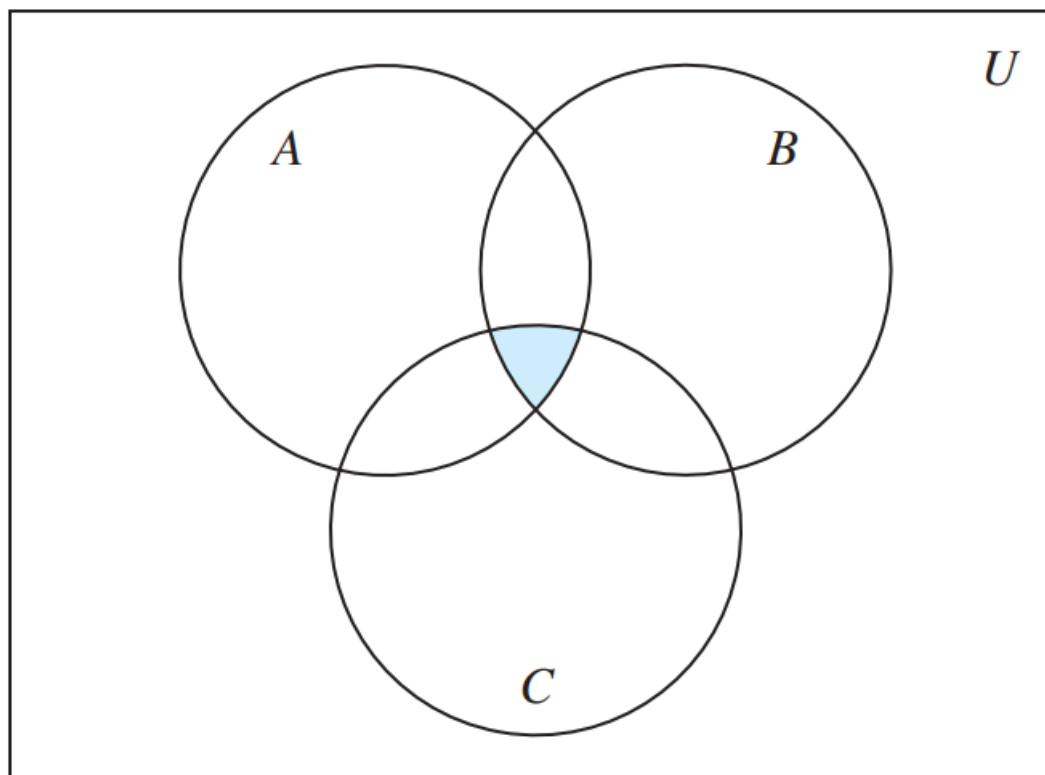
## Generalized Intersections

We use the notation

$$A_1 \cap A_2 \cap \cdots \cap A_n = \bigcap_{i=1}^n A_i$$

to denote the intersection of the sets  $A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n$ .

## Generalized Intersections



$A \cap B \cap C$  is shaded.



# Video Lectures

All Lectures: <https://www.youtube.com/playlist?list=PLxlv-MG0s6gZIMVY00EtUHJmfUquCjwz>

Lecture #3: <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=bNNpZa3fwq0&list=PLxlv-MG0s6gZIMVY00EtUHJmfUquCjwz&index=8>

Up to time 00:31:18

<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=1FEEjRCWo6E&list=PLxlv-MG0s6gZIMVY00EtUHJmfUquCjwz&index=10>

<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=Rdb0HQddn3Y&list=PLxlv-MG0s6gZIMVY00EtUHJmfUquCjwz&index=11>

<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=iSuD96uQ2zU&list=PLxlv-MG0s6gZIMVY00EtUHJmfUquCjwz&index=12>

Up to time 00:12:46

# Thank You

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